



Iron-nitrogen-carbon species for oxygen electro-reduction and Zn-air battery: Surface engineering and experimental probe into active sites

Anquan Zhu, Lulu Qiao, Pengfei Tan, Yongjin Ma, Weixuan Zeng, Rui Dong, Cheng Ma, Jun Pan*

State Key Laboratory for Powder Metallurgy, Central South University, Changsha 410083, PR China

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Oxygen reduction reaction
Active sites
Porous structures
Iron-nitrogen-carbon
Zn-air battery

ABSTRACT

It still requires further investigations on the status of iron-based compounds and actual active sites in iron and nitrogen modified carbon based oxygen reduction catalysts (Fe–N–C), even though Fe–N_x groups have been confirmed as a type of dominating active site for most Fe–N–C systems. Herein, a facile and practical surface engineering process is adopted to transform metallic iron and iron trioxide nanoparticles into Fe₂N nanocrystals, meanwhile to make their coated graphitic carbon shells interrupted and broken. This sufficiently facilitates the elimination of embedded Fe₂N with a subsequent acid-etching process, eventually obtaining AA-Fe₂N@NC sample. Based on various physicochemical characterizations, it is found that the relative concentrations of defective carbon and pyridinic N for AA-Fe₂N@NC are clearly enhanced, compared to its counterpart (Fe₂N@NC sample). Electrochemical measurements demonstrate that AA-Fe₂N@NC instead of Fe₂N@NC has optimal onset potential (72 mV positive shift), half-wave potential (45 mV positive shift) and limiting current density values (increased by 0.97 mA cm^{−2}). When used as an air cathode of rechargeable Zn-air battery, it delivers a high power density of 168.15 mW cm^{−2}, meanwhile a long-life cycling durability (60 h operation with an increased voltage gap of only 70 mV) is realized at 5 mA cm^{−2}. Combined with the calculation of TOF values and SCN[−] inhibition test, we make a conclusion and highlight that, in alkaline electrolyte, carbon defects and pyridinic N for this Fe–N–C system rather than Fe₂N compounds or Fe–N_x groups actually serve as the dominant active sites to afford a high-performance output of ORR activity.

1. Introduction

In consideration of their desirable features including competitive activities, reliable durability, robust methanol immunity and low cost, nitrogen doped carbon (N-C) and transition metal iron and nitrogen modified carbon (Fe–N–C) have been more and more investigated as alternatives of noble metal Pt or Pt-based alloys to serve as oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) electrodes in sustainable energy conversion devices, including metal-air batteries, fuel cells and water splitting reactors [1–5]. With these green and renewable energy conversion and storage techniques, a suite of energy and environment problems caused by the excessive consumption of fossil fuels will be effectually alleviated and even hopeful to be solved [6]. In order to achieve this sustainable development of our society, one of the key issues we currently faced with is to design and produce the above-mentioned carbon-based electrocatalysts with remarkable activity and stability [7]. But unfortunately, researchers devoting to develop these carbonaceous matrixes, especially Fe–N–C catalysts containing Fe-based compounds, with satisfactory catalytic properties have not yet reach a consensus

about the active site debates until now [2–4,8]. This calls for more valuable researches to distinguish the real active sites catalyzing for high-efficiency ORR and Zn-air battery based on Fe–N–C category electrodes [9].

For nitrogen doped carbon catalysts, both experimental and theoretical studies have confirmed the positive effect of nitrogen doping on ORR performances [10,11]. After implanting nitrogen atoms into carbon skeletons, there are four types of nitrogen atoms, denoted as pyridinic N, pyrrolic N, graphitic N and oxidized N, respectively, existing in N–C species [12,13]. Among them, pyridinic N and graphitic N are accepted by different researchers as prime active site to determine the ORR activities [10], of which the former is generally preferred [11]. It is believed that carbon atoms adjacent to doping sites would have large positive charge density because of the high electronegativity and strong electron affinity ability of nitrogen atoms. Pyridinic N can be favorable for the adsorption of O₂ molecule while graphitic N is capable of facilitating the breakage of O–O bonds, consequently providing a much enhanced ORR activity [4,14]

If iron atom is linked with nitrogen atoms to form Fe–N_x groups, the

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: jun.pan@csu.edu.cn (J. Pan).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.05.037>

Received 5 November 2018; Received in revised form 4 April 2019; Accepted 9 May 2019

Available online 14 May 2019

0926-3373/ © 2019 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

active components of Fe–N–C electrocatalysts are much more complicated. For this kind of catalysts, Fe atoms are prone to coordinating with pyridinic N and then generate Fe–N_x moieties, which have been identified as a kind of key active site for ORR in both acidic and alkaline electrolytes [15,16]. Nevertheless, the formation of Fe–N_x groups is highly uncontrollable and depends intimately on the selection of precursors, the design of synthetic route and the control of reaction condition [1,17,18]. These aspects synergistically lead to the final forms of existing in as-obtained Fe–N–C catalysts, Fe–N_x groups, Fe-based nanoparticles (metallic iron, iron oxide, iron nitride, or others) or both co-existing [19]. Up to now, only a few reports have been involved with unveiling the real role of inorganic Fe-based compounds and how they promote or inhibit the ORR activity of Fe–N–C catalysts [20]. Therefore, it remains indistinct that these Fe-based nanoparticles acting as actual active sites or just bonding with nitrogen atoms to facilitate the production of other active sites.

With on doubt, it is of great significance to illustrate the active sites of Fe–N–C catalysts according to rational experimental investigations. As demonstrated by dozens of reports [2,21,22], graphitic carbon coated metallic iron and iron oxide nanoparticles cannot be removed entirely by mineral acid, which impedes the implement of exploration on the actual active sites. In this work, we, at first, developed a g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O intermediate from hydrothermal reaction of d-glucose, iron oxalate and g-C₃N₄ mixtures. After the thermolysis of g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composite at argon atmosphere, graphitic carbon encapsulated metallic iron and iron oxide nanoparticles decorated nitrogen doped porous carbon (Fe₂O₃@NC) is fabricated. Through an ammonia treatment and acid-washing process, it is successful to transform metallic Fe and Fe₂O₃ particles into Fe₂N compounds and then getting rid of Fe₂N, eventually acquiring Fe₂N@NC sample and AA-Fe₂N@NC sample, respectively. This surface engineering process offers a prerequisite to gain insights into the actual active centers and the role of Fe₂N compound as well as Fe–N_x groups in as-synthesized Fe–N–C catalysts towards ORR. Combined with in-depth investigation on morphology, structure, composition and property of the Fe–N–C catalysts, it is advocated that plentiful carbon defects and pyridinic N actually are the primary active sites for ORR in alkaline electrolyte. We believe it could be helpful to exploit satisfactory Fe–N–C catalysts to meet the requirement of large-scale commercialization.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Synthesis of g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O precursor material

The porous g-C₃N₄ was pre-fabricated according to our previous reports [23]. After that, we aimed at preparing the g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composites. In typical, d-glucose (2.16 g, AR, Xilong Chemical Co., Ltd. Guangzhou, China) was first dissolved into 30 mL deionized (DI) water. Then, 0.5 g as-obtained g-C₃N₄ and 0.36 g iron oxalate (AR, 99%, Aladdin Industrial Corporation Shanghai, China) were added into the above solution followed by sustaining an ultrasound bath for 1 h. When the g-C₃N₄ was dispersed uniformly, the whole reactive mixture was transferred to 50 mL Teflon autoclave and maintained at 160 °C for 10 h. To acquire the g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composite, the hydrothermal precipitate need be centrifuged and washed with deionized water and ethanol for five times, in addition to dried overnight at 60 °C in a vacuum oven.

2.2. Synthesis of Fe₂O₃@NC and AA-Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids

Herein, the g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composite was successfully fabricated as precursor material for the carbonization synthesis of Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids. To achieve our goal, as-prepared g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composites (2 g) were annealed in argon at 800 °C for 1.5 h, in which the heating rate was 5 °C min^{−1}. After the reaction, the black powder (Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids) could be collected by centrifugation and washed

with deionized water and ethanol. As a comparison, the Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids were subjected to an acid-activated process in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ solution for 24 h at room temperature. After centrifugation, washed and dried, as-obtained powder was denoted as AA-Fe₂O₃@NC sample.

2.3. Synthesis of Fe₂N@NC and AA-Fe₂N@NC hybrids

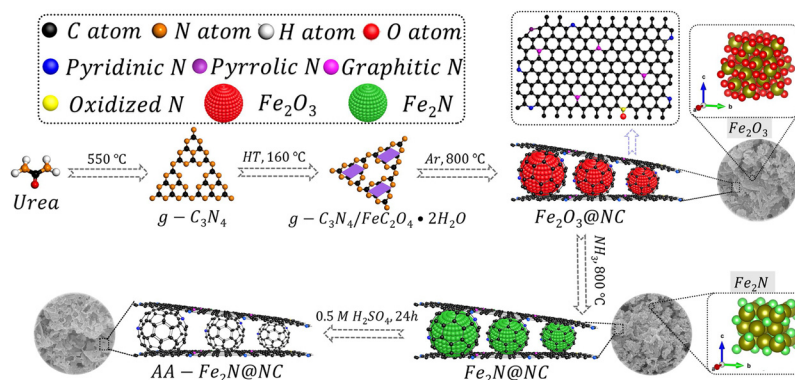
In an ammonia-treatment process, we succeed in converting Fe/Fe₂O₃ species into iron nitride (Fe₂N) species. Typically, the Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids (0.3 g) were poured into a crucible and then soaked in ammonia atmosphere. Other parameters (e.g. heating rate, reaction temperature, reaction time, flow rate and cooling rate) were identical to the above-mentioned synthetic process of Fe₂O₃@NC hybrids. The final product was named as Fe₂N@NC sample. Similar with AA-Fe₂O₃@NC sample, we obtained the AA-Fe₂N@NC after a facile acid-washing treatment of the Fe₂N@NC.

2.4. Electrochemical ORR measurements

All the electrochemical measurements were carried out by using a CHI 660E electrochemical workstation equipped with a rotating disk (Pine Rotating Disk Electrode, RDE) normal three-electrode system. A Pt wire served as the counter electrode, an Ag/AgCl in 3 M KCl as the reference electrode, a 0.1 M KOH solution as the electrolyte. In the process of cyclic voltammetry (CV) tests, the KOH electrolyte should be bubbled with N₂ or O₂ flow to achieve an oxygen-free or oxygen-saturated environment. For each working electrode test, 30 cycle CVs with a scan rate of 50 mV s^{−1} were accomplished to make it stable. Polarization curves (Linear Sweep Voltammetrys, LSVs) rotated between 400 and 2025 rpm were obtained under an uninterrupted O₂ flow, in which the sweep window and rate were 0.2 to −1 V vs. Ag/AgCl and 10 mV s^{−1}, respectively. The transferred electron number (*n*) can be calculated by the Koutecky–Levich (*K* – *L*) equation mentioned in previous reports [24]. The accelerated durability tests (ADT) were measured with a scan rate of 50 mV s^{−1} in O₂-saturated electrolyte, and the potential window was between 0.2 and −1 V vs. Ag/AgCl. Polarization curves before and after ADT tests were carried out to evaluate the stability of the samples. Methanol tolerance evaluation and SCN[−] inhibition studies of the samples were performed in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte without or with the addition of 3 M methanol and 5 mM KSCN, similar with some published papers [25,26].

2.5. Assembly and measurement processes of Zn-air battery

Primary Zn-air battery was assembled by catalyst air cathode, Zn anode and electrolyte [27]. Herein, catalyst cathode was composed of three parts: gas diffusion layer (GDL), nickel foam (current collector) and catalytic layer (CL). Initially, commercial Ni foam should be rolled press and achieve a thickness of 0.1 mm. The GDL was made from a paste that was mixed by acetylene black and polytetrafluoroethylene emulsion (PTFE, 60 wt%) with a mass ratio of 3:7. In which the paste need be painted uniformly on pressed Ni foam and then continuously press the unit until its thickness reaches 0.45 mm. The CL was prepared by catalysts, acetylene black and PTFE emulsion in a weight ratio of 5:2:3. The combination of GDL, Ni foam and CL (air cathode) should be pressed to afford a total thickness of 0.4 mm, of which the CL had a working geometric area of 1 cm² and a loading density of 3 mg cm^{−2}. Finally, as-fabricated air cathode was maintained in a vacuum oven and dried at 200 °C for 1 h. In this battery system, a polished Zn plate (thickness of 0.3 mm) and a solution (6 M KOH and 0.2 M Zn(Ac)₂) were used as anode and electrolyte, respectively. As a comparison, the air cathode was also constructed from commercial Pt/C 20 wt% and RuO₂ (99.9%) of equal mass. For Zn-air battery test, the polarization curves were recorded by a CHI 660E electrochemical workstation with a scan rate of 5 mV s^{−1}. To evaluate the durability of Zn-air battery, the galvanostatic discharge and charge cycles (discharging for 10 min and



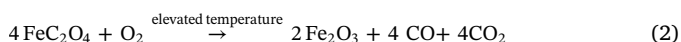
Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of synthesis processes for various Fe–N–C catalysts.

charging for 10 min at a constant current density of 5 mA cm^{-2}) were measured by a LANHE CT2001A battery testing system.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Illustration of synthetic processes

The detailed synthetic illustration of diverse Fe–N–C samples is depicted in Scheme 1. As confirmed by previous reports [23,28], graphitic carbon nitride ($g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$), intrinsically possessing carbon, nitrogen element and porous structure, is generally deemed as promising precursor material to synthesize nitrogen-doped porous carbon. By means of a hydrothermal reaction of prefabricated $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, d-glucose and iron oxalate, the expansive surface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ could be bonded to a certain amount of amorphous carbon from the carbonization of d-glucose along with iron (II) oxalate dihydrate, in other words, the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite was successfully fabricated. This fact can be exactly determined by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern and element mapping analysis. As shown in Fig. S1 (Supporting Information), both of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite have an obvious peak at $2\theta \approx 27.1^\circ$ [29], which is indexed to the (002) plane of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. However, a lot of additional peaks are observed in the XRD pattern of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite rather than that of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and these peaks are consistent with the standard card of $\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (JCPDS 23-0293), demonstrating the presence of $\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite. In addition, the corresponding element mapping (Fig. S2, Supporting Information) also manifests the uniform distribution of C, N, Fe and O elements in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite. To obtain the $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample, as-synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ composite need to be maintained at 800°C for 1.5 h under argon atmosphere. It is worth mentioning that the thermal decomposition and complicated reaction between amorphous carbon decorated $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{FeC}_2\text{O}_4\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ let a huge number of gases (including CO, CO_2 , H_2O , and so on) out, which is responsible for the formation of defect sites and abundant pore structures. Defects are expected to serve as active sites for oxygen reduction reaction [30], meanwhile, plentiful pores are capable of accelerating diffusion of reactant gases and ions to the reaction active sites, in turn to enhance the output of ORR activity [31]. Along with these defect sites and pores in nitrogen doped carbon matrix might be formed in the processes of pyroreaction, there are a series of converting reactions related to Fe element as well. As we understand, iron trioxide and metallic Fe could be generated based on the following equations (Note: some oxygen might exist in the furnace tube):



As a result, Fe_2O_3 and metallic Fe nanoparticles embedded in nitrogen doped carbon ($\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$) hybrids are produced. It has been proved that Fe_2O_3 and metallic Fe nanoparticles could not be removed completely by facile acid-washing if these particles are encompassed by graphitic carbon shell [22]. For iron nitride, however, it might be the other side of a coin. Therefore, the Fe_2O_3 and metallic Fe nanoparticles are converted as iron nitride (Fe_2N) nanoparticles through an ammonia treatment. Subsequently, as-fabricated $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample is immersed into 0.5 M sulfuric acid to wipe out the Fe_2N nanoparticles fixed in nitrogen doped carbon matrixes as much as possible, finally obtaining AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample. Comparative research on the structures, components and properties of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ and AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ samples, it is enabled to better understand the real active sites of these Fe–N–C species.

3.2. Structure and composition characterization

To identify the phase compositions of as-obtained Fe–N–C species, XRD patterns were recorded and displayed in Fig. 1. For all samples, a broad and rough peak at $2\theta \approx 26.1^\circ$ corresponds to the (002) plane of graphitic carbon [32], confirming the existence of graphitic carbon. In Fig. 1a, a set of peaks at 30.2° , 35.6° , 43.3° , 57.3° and 62.3° appear in the XRD patterns of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ and AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ samples, which are ascribed to the (200), (311), (400), (511) and (440) lattice planes of cubic Fe_2O_3 (JCPDS 39-1346) [33], respectively. Additionally, the sharp peak located at 44.7° is attributed to the (110) plane of cubic metallic Fe (JCPDS 87-0721), suggesting its good crystallinity. Comparatively speaking, this fact means that, even after acid-washing for 24 h, considerable metallic Fe and Fe_2O_3 nanoparticles still remain in the carbon matrix. After NH_3 treatment, metallic Fe and Fe_2O_3 particles are transformed into Fe_2N phases. The evidence is that apparent peaks at 37.4° , 40.6° , 42.7° , 56.4° , 67.1° and 75.4° are assigned to the (021), (200), (121), (221), (023) and (321) lattice planes of orthorhombic Fe_2N (JCPDS 50-0958) [34,35]. We fail to detect the trail of Fe_2N phase any more from the XRD pattern with a process of acid-washing, and speculate that the NH_3 activating treatment might create additional pore structures or defects in the graphitic carbon shell encapsulated Fe_2N cores. These pore structures or defects could facilitate the diffusion of H^+ ions into the inner of graphitic carbon shell, consequently eliminating Fe_2N nanoparticles. Hence, the peaks we can find in the XRD pattern (Fig. 1b) of AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ are (002) and (100) plane of graphitic carbon, proving that acid-washing is an effective strategy to remove Fe_2N phases if embedded in broken graphitic carbon shells.

The morphology and microstructure of these Fe–N–C samples were probed by SEM and TEM techniques. As displayed in Fig. 2a–d and Fig. S3 (Supporting Information), it is revealed that $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample has a curly sheet-like structure loading with numerous graphitic carbon coated Fe/ Fe_2O_3 nanoparticles, in which the average diameter of these nanoparticles are statistically evaluated to be about 24.5 nm. After

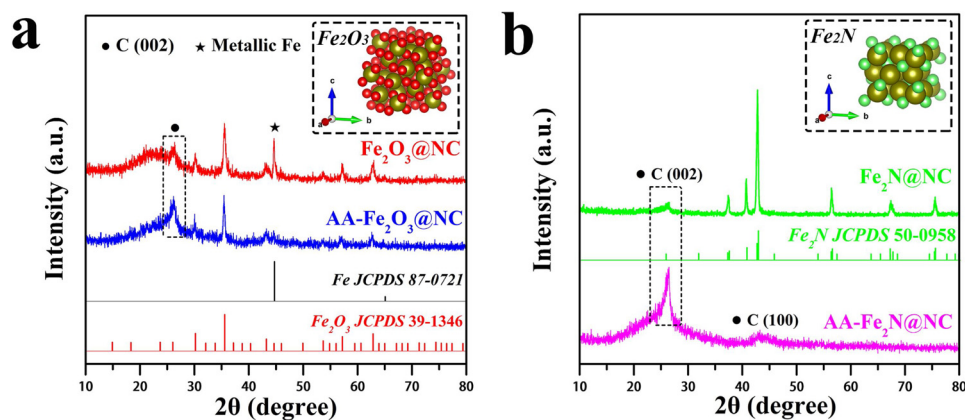


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of as-prepared $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$, $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$, $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample.

etching with H_2SO_4 solution, some metallic Fe and Fe_2O_3 particles are disappeared, but quite a lot of them are still reserved, which are consistent with the XRD result. Most worthy of mention is that we can clearly notice, for $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample, more curved carbon flakes getting a chance to be exposed, in comparison to $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample. A SEM image of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample is exhibited in Fig. 2e, revealing plenty of Fe_2N nanoparticles distributed uniformly in the curved nitrogen doped carbon plates, similar with $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample. Further observation (Fig. 2g) on the size of Fe_2N nanoparticles gives an average diameter of 28.5 nm, slightly bigger than that of $\text{Fe}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ particles in $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ sample, implying an increased crystalline grain size caused by secondary heat-treatment. A high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample is exhibited in Fig. 2h, of which few graphitic carbon layers (~5 layers) encapsulated Fe_2N particles are visibly decorated on porous nitrogen doped carbon matrixes, and the distinct inter-planar spacings of 0.21 and 0.34 nm are related to the (121) plane of Fe_2N and (002) plane of graphitic carbon, respectively [34,36]. Taking a close look, it is observed that these graphitic carbon layers are interrupted and broken, which is definitely capable of facilitating the diffusion of H^+ to contact and react with inner Fe_2N cores, coinciding with our

above conjecture. Moreover, the removal of Fe_2N particles could be also demonstrated by the disappearance of crystal diffraction spots in the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns (inset of Fig. 2g and Fig. 2i), to some extent. It will contribute more active sites from the internal surfaces of graphitic carbon shell once these Fe_2N particles are out of original positions.

That is why a porous structure with more broken fringes or holes are detectable from the SEM (Fig. 2f) and TEM (Fig. 2i) images of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample. Fortunately, these broken fringes and holes of nitrogen doped carbon matrixes could not only provide a favorable mass transport pathway, but also form more carbon defects (Fig. 2j and Fig. 2k) as ORR active sites to enhance the catalytic activities [37]. Raman spectra is recognized as an effective tool to investigate the superficial defect structure of carbon-based materials [38]. Fig. 2m exhibits that the I_D/I_G ratio of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample (1.35) is much bigger than that of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample (1.07), verifying a higher concentration defect carbon structures of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample, in line with the result of SEM and TEM observation [39,40]. These defects in $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample are derived from the enhancement of surface area and pore volume on account of the elimination of Fe_2N nanoparticles. The

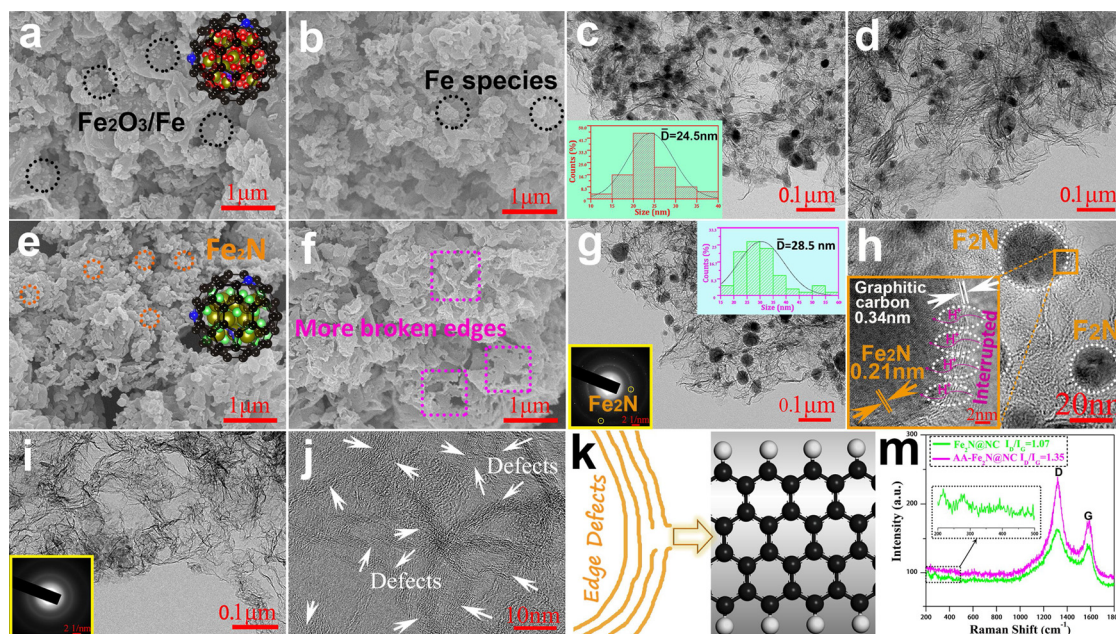


Fig. 2. SEM images of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ (a), $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ (b), $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (e) and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (f) sample. TEM images of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ (c), $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NC}$ (d), $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (g) and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (i) sample, inset of corresponding selective area electron diffraction pattern and an average diameter (\bar{D}) of Fe-based nanoparticles. HRTEM images of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (h) and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ (j) sample, inset of (h) is the enlarged view. Schematic illustration of edge defects in graphitic carbon (k). Raman spectrum of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N}@\text{NC}$ sample (m).

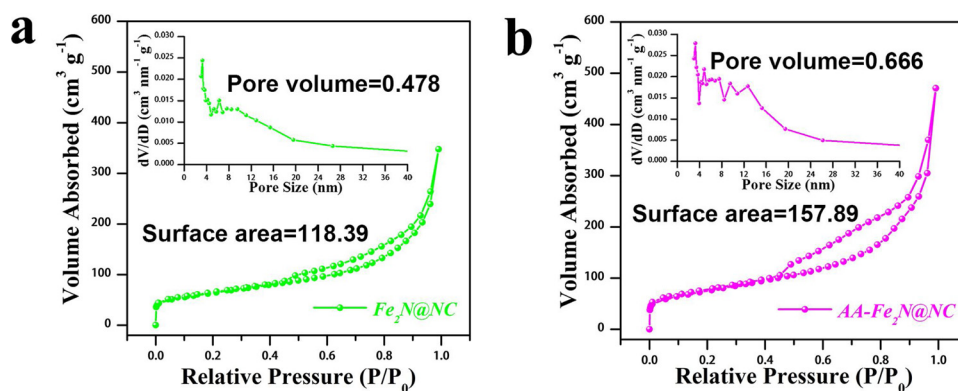


Fig. 3. N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherm and pore size distribution curves for $Fe_2N@NC$ (a) and $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ (b) sample.

elimination of Fe_2N particles can be also confirmed from the fact that several vibrating peaks around $200\text{ cm}^{-1} \sim 500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for $Fe_2N@NC$ sample, which is motivated by Fe_2N phase [41], are undetectable in the Raman spectra of $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample, consistent with the above XRD and SEM/TEM analysis.

On the basis of morphology and microstructure analysis, nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm was employed to precisely explore the surface texture properties of samples. As shown in Fig. 3, both $Fe_2N@NC$ and $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ samples have typical IV isotherms, suggesting the coexistence of microporous and mesoporous structures [14,23,42]. Calculated by Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) and Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) methods, the specific surface area and pore volume of $Fe_2N@NC$ sample are $118.39\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.478\text{ cm}^3\text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively, slightly smaller than that of $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample ($157.89\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.666\text{ cm}^3\text{ g}^{-1}$). This means that surface area and pore volume will play similar roles in affecting the different catalytic activities of the two samples. It is discovered from the pore distribution curves that $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample possesses a broader range of mesopore distribution. These pores serve as expedite pathways for migration of the molecules and ions and give rise to an enhanced mass transport ability, further leading to superior ORR activities. It is believed that the improved surface area and pore volume of $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample result from the useful acid-washing treatment, in this process Fe_2N particles could be cleared off and more carbon structures are released. Similarly, this situation happens to $Fe_2O_3@NC$ and $AA-Fe_2O_3@NC$ samples (Fig. S5 and Table S1, Supporting Information). These carbon structures equipping with sufficient defects, testified by Raman spectra, could act as ORR active sites to strengthen electrocatalytic output.

The presence of C, N, O and Fe elements in $Fe_2N@NC$ sample can be preliminarily affirmed by the corresponding energy dispersive spectra in Fig. S6 (Supporting Information), while the signal of Fe elements could hardly be collected from $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample, indicating the absence of Fe_2N particles and rarely residual Fe element in carbon matrix after acid-washing treatment. To figure out the existence form and distribution of Fe elements, the HAADF-STEM image, the EDS linear spectra and STEM-EDS mapping spectra were characterized. As provided in Fig. 4a, the bright nanoparticles located in the main matrix are Fe_2N phases, which can be certified by the detailed distribution of Fe and N elements. Obviously, the intensive Fe signals are centralized at the Fe_2N particles, and these signals almost cannot be detected at the positions where no Fe_2N nanoparticles are resident. In addition, the EDS linear spectra (Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c) demonstrates that N elements distributes homogeneously across the line and overlaps with Fe elements. These reasonably make us believe that Fe elements extensively and mostly exist in the form of Fe_2N phase. Significantly, it is found that C and N elements evenly distribute in the whole matrix, manifesting the uniform doping of N elements into carbon skeletons. When getting rid of Fe_2N particles, there are C and N elements evenly locating all over the main matrix (Fig. 4d) along with slight Fe elements. In other words,

Fe elements, in the $Fe_2N@NC$ sample, exist dominantly in the form of Fe_2N crystal phases and scarcely coordinate with N atoms to form $Fe-N_x$ sites.

The surface chemical composition and primary bonding configuration of $Fe_2N@NC$ and $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample were assessed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As expected, all the peaks of C, N, O and Fe elements are present in the survey spectrum of $Fe_2N@NC$ sample (Fig. 5a), but for $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample, the signal of Fe element is missing, supporting for the absence of Fe_2N particles, to some extent. It is widely accepted that carbon based materials contain two types of carbon atoms, the sp^2 carbon atoms at basal-plane and the sp^3 defect carbon atoms. Therefore, the defect degree of carbon materials is intimately relevant to the sp^3 carbon concentration [40,43]. The C 1s high-resolution spectrum can be de-convoluted into five peaks centered at 284.8, 285.9, 286.8, 287.8 and 289.5 eV, corresponding to basal-plane sp^2 carbon, sp^3 defect carbon, C–O bonds, C=O/C–N bonds and $\pi-\pi^*$ satellite peak, respectively [37,43]. Compared with $Fe_2N@NC$, the sp^3/sp^2 ratio of $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample increases from 0.17 to 0.20 (Table S4, Supporting Information), and the relative concentration of sp^3 defect carbon in $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ (14.08%) is also bigger than that of $Fe_2N@NC$ (12.78%), indicative of the enhanced defective carbon content in $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ [40], which is in accordance with the results of TEM observation and Raman spectra. In Fig. 5c, the binding energies at 398.5, 399.0, 399.8, 401.1 and 402.9 eV are assigned to pyridinic N, Fe–N compounds, pyrrolic N, graphitic N and oxidized N, respectively [34,44]. Notably, Fe–N compounds further make the existence of Fe_2N phase in $Fe_2N@NC$ sample acceptable. What surprises us is that the relative concentration of pyridinic N in $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ is as high as 37.8%, about 2.22 times large as that of $Fe_2N@NC$. More unlocked surface area induced by acid-washing treatment could possibly expose more C–N structures with various configurations or defects, and in our $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample, pyridinic N acquires a priority to be released among these N-containing groups. Fortunately, pyridinic N has been identified as highly active sites to catalyze oxygen reduction reaction and is responsible for promoting electrocatalytic activities [45]. For $Fe_2N@NC$, the Fe 2p peak (Fig. 5d) can be divided into four parts: Fe $2p_{3/2}$, shake-up satellite peak, Fe $2p_{1/2}$ and shake-up satellite peak, locating at 710.9, 720.1, 724.7 and 733.2 eV, respectively [46]. Comparatively, the Fe 2p high-resolution spectrum curve is roughly flat and without obvious peaks, proving the removal of Fe_2N particles again. However, the XPS measurement is not enough sensitive to the element detection with extremely low concentration. In this regard, ICP-OES is employed to precisely figure out the content of Fe in the two samples. As-shown in Table S5 (Supporting Information), the relative mass concentrations of Fe element in $Fe_2N@NC$ and $AA-Fe_2N@NC$ sample are 52.3% and 0.94%, respectively, which means traces Fe distributing in doped carbon matrix. This measured values are different from the XPS results. It could be attributed to that XPS is related to the surface while ICP-OES is the reflection of overall bulk. Unfortunately, these

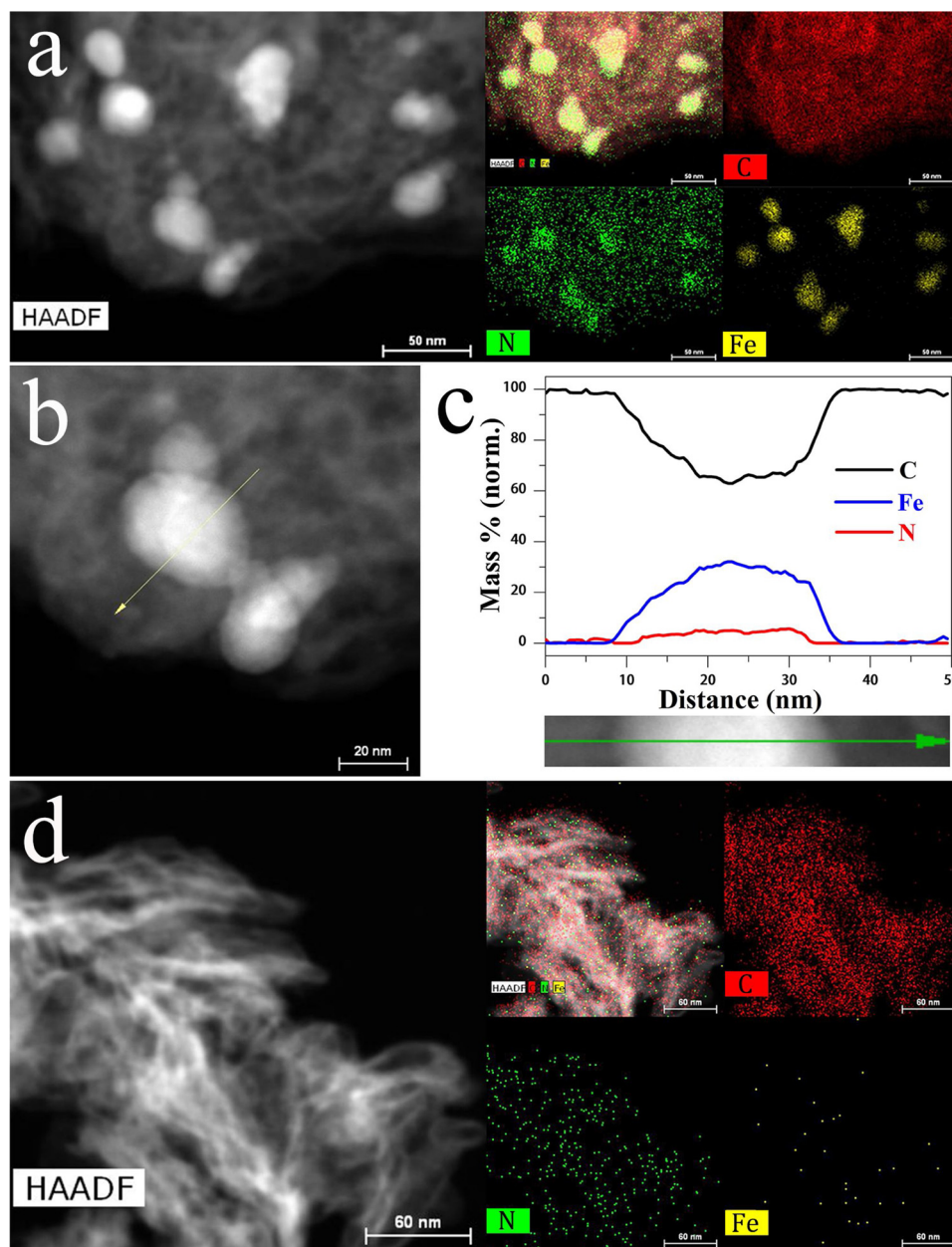


Fig. 4. A HAADF-STEM image and corresponding EDS mapping of C, N and Fe elements for Fe₂N@NC (a) and AA-Fe₂N@NC (d) sample. Elemental distributions of C, Fe and N elements for Fe₂N@NC sample in a single nanoparticle extracted from a STEM-EELS line profile (b and c).

Fe₂N nanoparticles are coated with several layer of carbon shells. In consideration of well-recognized surface processes of electrocatalysis, the XPS results could be accordingly acceptable.

As a powerful tool to identify the chemical states and atomic structure of Fe-species in as-fabricated Fe–N–C catalysts, ⁵⁷Fe Mössbauer spectra were performed and displayed in Fig. 6. The specific assignments of Fe-species according to the experimental Mössbauer parameters are summarized in Table S6 (Supporting Information). As revealed, the spectrum of Fe₂N@NC (Fig. 6a) could be fitted with four parts: two doublets (D1 and D2) and two sextets (Sextet 1 and Sextet 2). They are attributed to Fe_xN ($x \leq 2.1$, D1) [20,47], Fe^{III}N₄ site high-spin (D2) [47], Fe_xC/Fe₂C_xN_{1-x} (Sextet 1) [48,49] and oxidized Fe particles (Sextet 2) [50], respectively. The sub-spectrum of Fe_xN ($x \leq 2.1$, D1) originates from inorganic Fe₂N nanoparticles. Similar with one previous work [50], the sextet 2 corresponding to oxidized Fe particles is probably caused by surface oxidation of Fe₂N particles. As for AA-Fe₂N@NC (Fig. 6b), only two doublets (D1': Fe^{III}N₄ site high-spin state and D2':

Fe^{II}N₄ site low-spin state) [51,52] related to two kinds of Fe–N₄ sites could be deconvoluted. These Fe–N₄ structures are likely serving as active sites to catalyze for ORR. Obviously, inorganic Fe-involving nanoparticles in AA-Fe₂N@NC are not detected after acid-treatment of Fe₂N@NC sample, instead two types of organically coordinated Fe–N₄ sites are demonstrated. All these facts are consistent with above-mentioned other characterization results.

3.3. Electrochemical measurements analysis

According to the above analysis, as-obtained Fe–N–C samples are expected to develop as promising high-performance ORR catalysts. The ORR activities are preliminarily evaluated by CV measurements in N₂-saturated/O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH electrolyte. For all samples, effective oxygen reduction processes could be revealed from the apparent reduction peaks in O₂-saturated rather than N₂-saturated electrolyte (Fig. 7a). The reduction peak current density of AA-Fe₂N@NC (1.07 mA

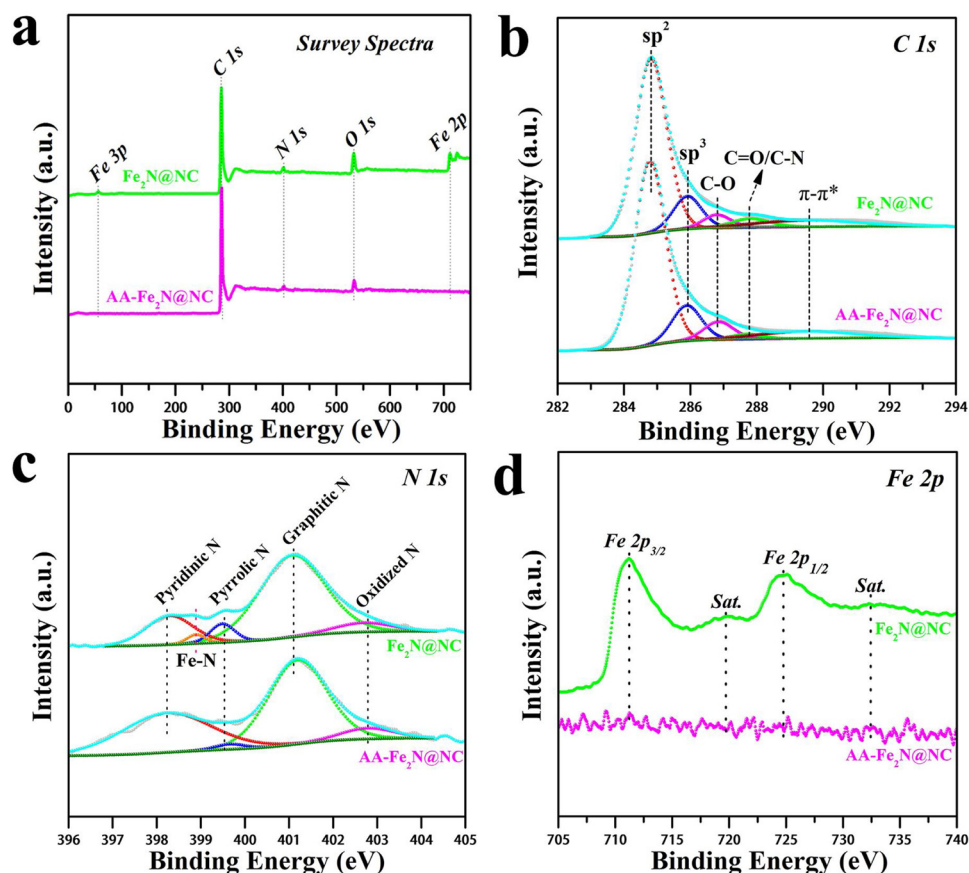


Fig. 5. XPS measurements of as-obtained $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample. Survey spectra (a), High-resolution spectra of C 1s (b), N 1s (c) and Fe 2p (d).

cm^{-2}) sample at 50 mV s^{-1} is larger than that of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ (0.74 mA cm^{-2}) sample and Pt/C catalyst (0.47 mA cm^{-2}), implying an inherently outstanding ORR activity of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample in alkaline electrolyte [53]. The prominent ORR activities of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample are further determined by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) polarization curves (Fig. 7b). $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample exhibits an onset potential (E_{onset}) of -0.073 V vs. Ag/AgCl (If not particular mention, the potential in this work is relative to Ag/AgCl electrode at 25°C), a half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) of -0.172 V along with a limiting current density of 5.44 mA cm^{-2} in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte. All the properties are superior to those of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ ($E_{\text{onset}} = -0.145 \text{ V}$; $E_{1/2} = -0.217 \text{ V}$; $j_L = 4.47 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) sample and Pt/C ($E_{\text{onset}} = -0.065 \text{ V}$; $E_{1/2} = -0.228 \text{ V}$; $j_L = 4.50 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$) catalyst (Fig. 7e). More significantly, we find that, after removing Fe_2N nanoparticles in $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample, the overall ORR activities of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample are amazingly enhanced, which demonstrates that Fe_2N compounds are not dominating active sites, to a

certain extent. The explicit ORR kinetics of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample could be disclosed by RDE measurements at various rotating rates (Fig. 7c). These LSV curves give a typical phenomenon that the current densities increase with the higher rotating rates because of the shortened gas diffusion distance [23]. In Fig. 7d, the corresponding Koutecky–Levich (K–L) plots with good linearity and parallelism among the fitting lines at various potentials suggest a first-order reaction involved with the dissolved oxygen concentration [54]. Furthermore, the electron transfer number (n) of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample is calculated as $4.00 \sim 4.05$ between -0.4 V and -0.8 V by using K–L formula, revealing a dominated four-electron transfer mechanism in ORR procedure [23]. The Tafel slope (Fig. 7f) of $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample in low current density region is estimated to be 59 mV dec^{-1} , which is a little smaller than that of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample (63 mV dec^{-1}) and Pt/C catalyst (87 mV dec^{-1}). This result sufficiently demonstrates a favorable kinetics mechanism towards ORR for $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample, signifying that $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ catalyst can

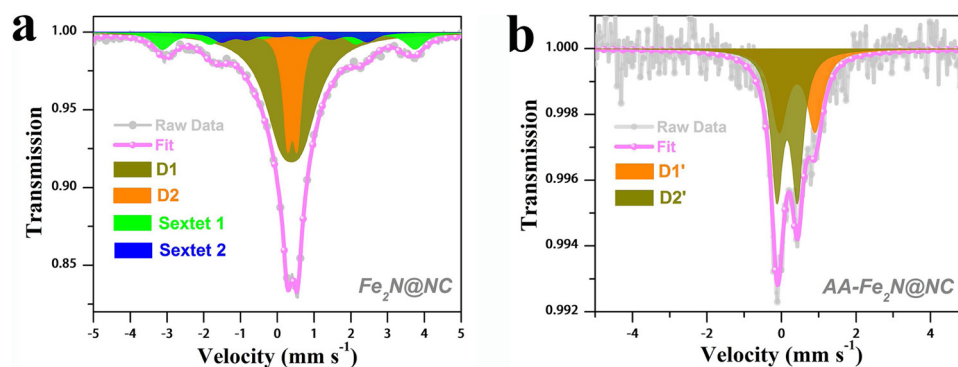


Fig. 6. ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectra of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ (a) and $\text{AA-Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ (b) sample measured at room temperature.

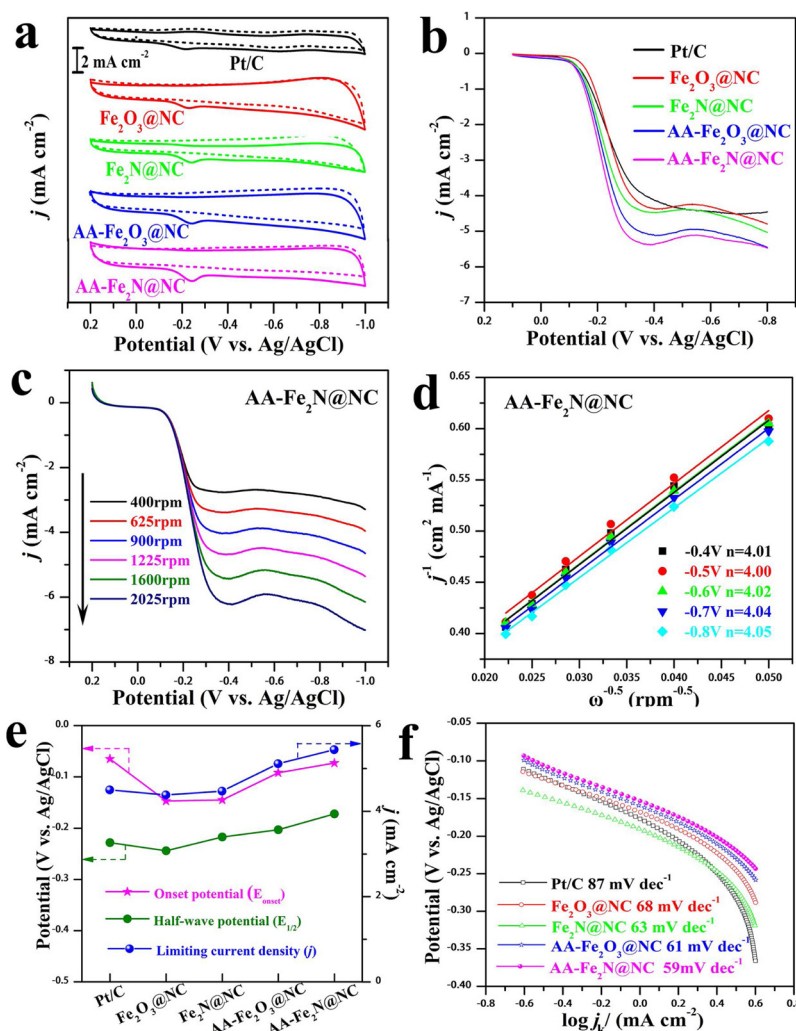


Fig. 7. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) at scan rate of 50 mV s^{-1} in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte (a). RDE measurements (LSV curves) in 0.1 M O_2 -saturated (solid line) and N_2 -saturated (dashed line) KOH electrolyte at 1600 rpm , scan rate: 10 mV s^{-1} (b). RDE measurements (c) at various rotation rates (scan rate: 10 mV s^{-1}) and corresponding K–L plots (d) of AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample. The summary of E_{onset} , $E_{1/2}$ and j_L values (e). Tafel slopes of different samples (f).

reach higher current density at a lower overpotential [55].

To better understand the ORR catalytic activity, the mass activity and turnover frequency (TOF) of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ and AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample at the potential value of E^0 (E^0 is the value of half-wave potential for AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample.) are calculated and presented in Table 1. The mass activity of AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample is 13.9 A g^{-1} , overmatching that of $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample. The intrinsic catalytic activities of the two samples are further assessed by TOF values. When assuming pyridinic N and defective carbon atoms as catalytically active sites, AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample shows higher TOF value of 0.022 s^{-1} and 0.0038 s^{-1} , outperforming $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample. If taking Fe atoms as active centers, the

Table 1
Comparison of electrocatalytic activity of various samples.

Samples	Mass activity at E^0 (A g^{-1})	TOF _{Fe} at E^0 (s^{-1}) ^a	TOF _N at E^0 (s^{-1}) ^a	TOF _{sp3C} at E^0 (s^{-1}) ^a
$\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$	11.0	0.003 ^b	0.016	0.0034
AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$	13.9	0.209	0.022	0.0038

Note: E^0 is the value of half-wave potential for AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample.

^a TOF values were evaluated by supposing that every corresponding atom are participated in the catalytic processes. (Details about the calculation are available from Supporting Information).

^b Containing Fe atoms in Fe_2N nanocrystal and Fe- N_x groups.

corresponding TOF value for AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample is as high as 0.209 s^{-1} . By contrast, the value for $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample just reach to 0.003 s^{-1} . However, this result could not actually prove that Fe- N_x groups are main active sites. It is because that, for $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample, the mass concentration of Fe is derived from overwhelming majority of Fe_2N compounds, while these Fe_2N particles might play minor role in catalytic reaction. In fact, it is hard to figure out the precise distribution of Fe elements in Fe_2N compounds and Fe- N_x groups as well as N elements in Fe_2N compounds and C- N_x groups. Based on this consideration, the role of Fe- N_x groups in our Fe–N–C system is necessary to be further probed by SCN^- inhibition studies.

On the other hand, durability and methanol-tolerance are considered as other key factors to evaluate the property of catalysts [52]. After the accelerated durability tests (ADT), we obtained the ORR polarization curves of AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample and Pt/C catalyst (Fig. 8). Even sustaining CV test for 10,000 cycles, AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ sample, analogous to other Fe–N–C samples (Fig. S11, Supporting Information), still show surprising stability with a half-wave potential drop of 1 mV , which is much smaller than that of Pt/C catalyst (13 mV negative shift). Besides, AA- $\text{Fe}_2\text{N@NC}$ catalyst possesses commendable tolerance for methanol poisoning, exhibiting overlapped CV curves with/without the presence of 3 M methanol (Fig. 8c). This is completely different from Pt/C catalyst. After adding 3 M methanol into KOH electrolyte, a distinct oxidation peak appeared in the CV curve of Pt/C catalyst (Fig. 8d),

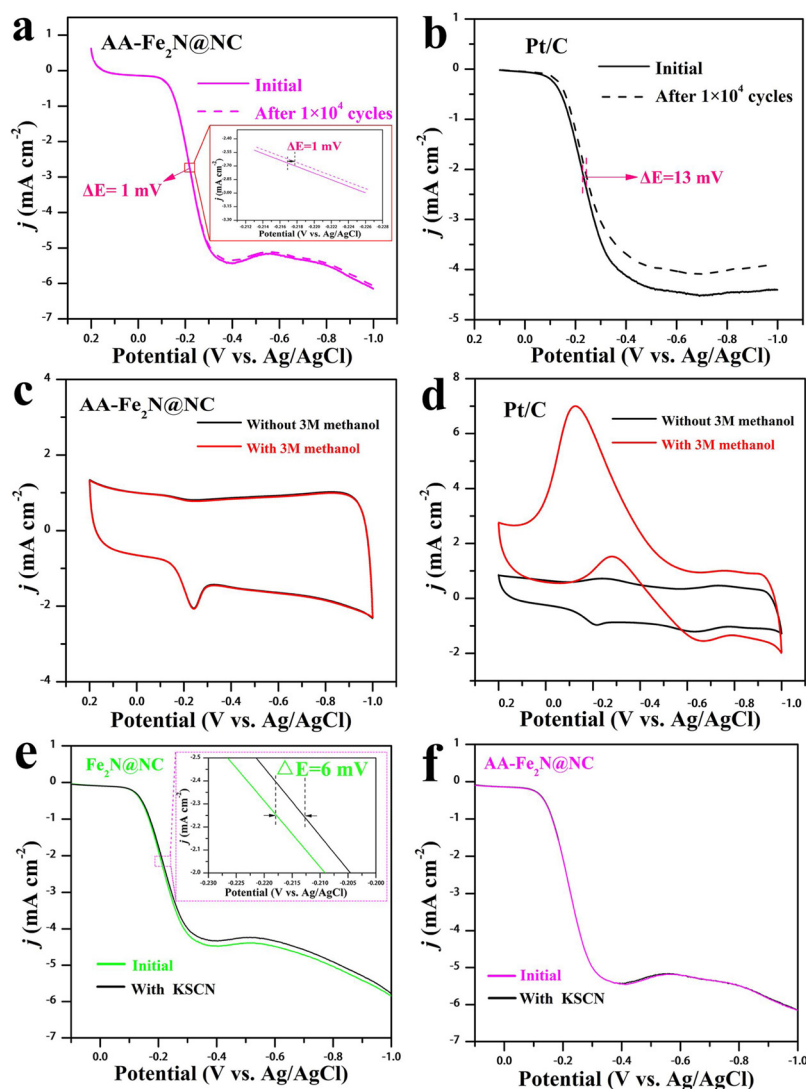


Fig. 8. ORR polarization curves of AA-Fe₂N@NC sample (a) and Pt/C catalyst (b) before and after 10,000 potential cycles; Methanol tolerance tests: CV curves of AA-Fe₂N@NC sample (c) and Pt/C catalyst (d) with and without injecting 3 M methanol into O₂-saturated electrolyte; ORR polarization curves of Fe₂N@NC (e) and AA-Fe₂N@NC (f) sample before and after soaked in 5 mM KSCN solution.

identifying the existence of methanol oxidation reaction. The high methanol tolerance means that AA-Fe₂N@NC catalyst is a promising candidates for electrode material used in fuel cells.

For purpose of investigating the role of Fe-based species in Fe₂N@NC sample for ORR, we employed SCN⁻ ion as an ORR active site inhibitor. As we know, SCN⁻ ions are prone to coordinate with surface iron ions and consequently reducing ORR activity if Fe-based groups are main active sites [16,26]. After soaking in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte with 5 mM KSCN for 2 h, the ORR half-wave potential of Fe₂N@NC sample (Fig. 8e) only decreases by 6 mV, which means that Fe₂N phases and Fe-N_x groups in Fe₂N@NC sample are not main active sites for ORR. As shown in Fig. 8f, AA-Fe₂N@NC sample maintains the same ORR activities, whatever poisoned by SCN⁻ ions or not. This is because that active sites including C-N groups and carbon defects are almost immune to the toxicant effect of SCN⁻ ions, simultaneously further verifying that Fe-N_x groups don't serve as the primary active sites towards ORR. All the above results approve that, for these Fe-N-C catalysts, N-containing groups and defective carbon structures rather than Fe₂N phases or Fe-N_x groups are dominant ORR active sites and responsible for the enhanced ORR performances.

3.4. Rechargeable Zn-air battery

To further probe the satisfactory catalytic activity and durability, a rechargeable home-made Zn-air battery (Fig. 9a) was fabricated by using as-prepared AA-Fe₂N@NC sample as catalyst cathode. For comparison, a mixture of commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ catalysts (Pt/C-RuO₂) with a mass ratio of 1:1 was also made as air cathode. At room temperature, an open-circuit voltage of 1.49 V (Fig. 9b) could be achieved for as-assembled AA-Fe₂N@NC air battery, slightly higher than that of Pt/C-RuO₂ (1.47 V). With a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻², we measured the polarization (V-j) curves of Zn-air batteries made from various catalyst air cathodes. The V-j curves and corresponding power density plots are exhibited in Fig. 9c. As-observed, the AA-Fe₂N@NC sample affords a larger power density of 168.15 mW cm⁻² and a higher current density of 300 mA cm⁻² at 0.54 V, which surpass those of Fe₂N@NC sample (134.02 mW cm⁻² and 248 mA cm⁻²), Pt/C-RuO₂ catalyst (141.48 mW cm⁻² and 262 mA cm⁻²) and some other reports [27,56,57]. These facts demonstrate superior catalytic activity of AA-Fe₂N@NC sample. The long-term rechargeability (Fig. 9d) of as-made Zn-air battery, the cycling tests were carried out at a constant density of 5 mA cm⁻² (charging for 10 min and discharging for 10 min). In the beginning, the battery fabricated with AA-Fe₂N@NC catalyst exhibits a discharging

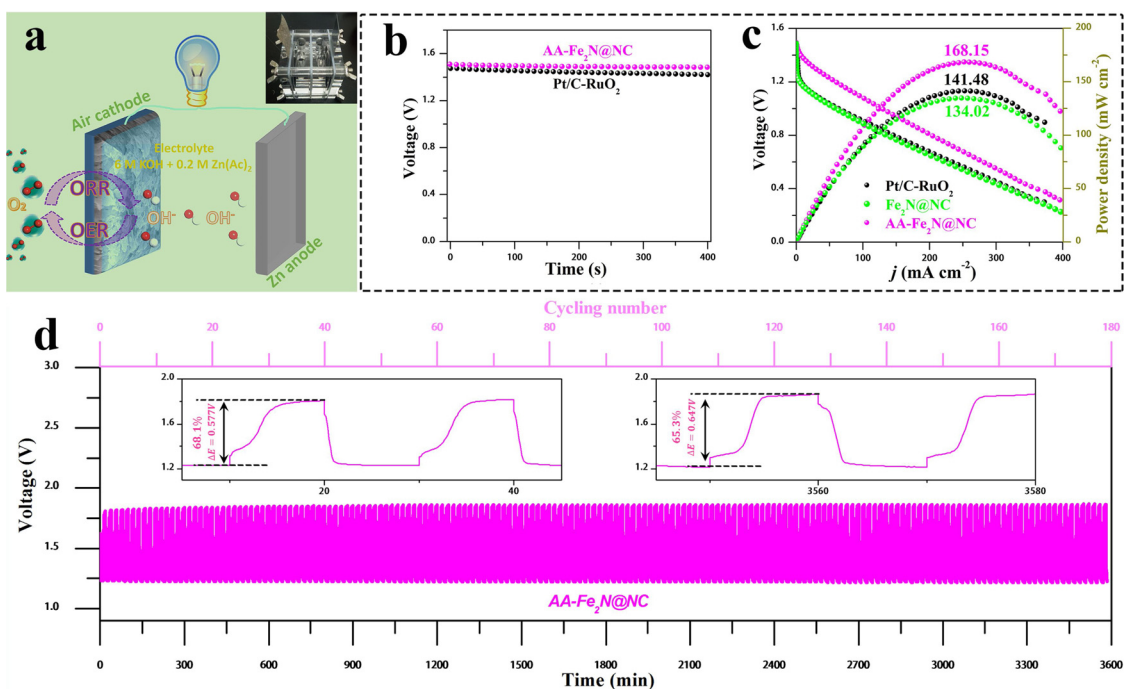


Fig. 9. Schematic illustration of home-made rechargeable Zn-air battery (a); Open-circuit voltage (b), polarization and power density curves (c) of Zn-air batteries assembled with various catalysts air cathodes; Galvanostatic discharging and charging cycling curves of the Zn-air battery with AA-Fe₂N@NC air cathode at a current of 5 mA cm⁻² for 10 min discharge and 10 min charge (d).

voltage of 1.231 V and a charging voltage of 1.808 V, with a relatively small voltage gap of 0.577 V and a high onset round-trip efficiency of 68.1%, which are even better than the values reported [58]. After continuous cycling operation for about 60 h (180 cycles), the voltage gap only increases about 70 mV, demonstrating the excellent stability for AA-Fe₂N@NC air cathode.

3.5. Discussion and summary about active sites

Based on the aforementioned structure, component and property characterizations, some discussions are necessary to take for preferably understanding the dominant ORR active sites. Derived from g-C₃N₄/FeC₂O₄·2H₂O composite, we, as expected, fabricate graphitic carbon wrapped Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles and metallic Fe decorated nitrogen doped carbon hybrids (Fe₂O₃@NC). By means of acid-washing treatment, the surface area and pore volume of AA-Fe₂O₃@NC sample are accordingly increased on account of the removal of fractional metallic Fe and Fe₂O₃ particles, but most of Fe-containing species are still residual in carbon matrices. Reacting with NH₃ at high temperature, both metallic Fe and Fe₂O₃ particles enable to transform to be Fe₂N compounds, meanwhile it is observed by HRTEM images (Fig. 2h) that the graphitic carbon shells encircled Fe₂N particles become discontinuous and broken in as-developed Fe₂N@NC sample, during the process of acid-washing treatment. This fact facilitates the diffusion of H⁺ ions into the interior of graphitic carbon shells, and then eliminating Fe₂N particles as much as possible to acquire AA-Fe₂N@NC sample. In fact, trace Fe-species rather than Fe₂N phase is detectable in AA-Fe₂N@NC sample, according to XRD, SEM, TEM, EDS mapping, XPS, ICP-OES and Mössbauer spectra results. The trace Fe-species are demonstrated existing in the form of two different Fe-N₄ sites. Of great significance, it is confirmed by HRTEM image, Raman and XPS spectra that AA-Fe₂N@NC sample has more abundant carbon defects and pyridinic N concentration in comparison to Fe₂N@NC sample. As a consequence, AA-Fe₂N@NC sample exhibits better overall ORR performances than Fe₂N@NC sample with a E_{onset} of -0.073 V, a $E_{1/2}$ of -0.172 V, a j_L of 5.44 mA cm⁻² and a Tafel slope of 59 mV dec⁻¹, even surpassing commercial 20 wt% Pt/C catalyst.

In addition to those, AA-Fe₂N@NC catalyst is also demonstrated to be highly active and stable air cathode for rechargeable Zn-Air battery. By right of a SCN⁻ ions poisoning experiment (Fig. 8), it is reasonably believed that, for this Fe-N-C system, N-containing groups and carbon defects are primary ORR active sites, while Fe₂N phases and Fe-N_x groups play a minor role in catalyzing for ORR.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we have successfully converted Fe/Fe₂O₃ species into Fe₂N compounds and simultaneously broken the graphitic carbon shells peripheral to these particles by using a surface engineering process, which facilitates the diffusion of H⁺ ions and makes it easier to completely remove Fe₂N particles. It is confirmed by various techniques that Fe elements of Fe₂N@NC sample exist in the form of Fe₂N nanocrystals and fairly slight Fe-N_x groups. After eliminating these Fe₂N particles, Raman and XPS spectra show that I_D/I_G and sp^3/sp^2 carbon values of AA-Fe₂N@NC sample are increased to 1.35 and 0.20 from 1.07 and 0.17 of Fe₂N@NC sample, respectively, suggesting an enhanced defective carbon concentration. Additionally, the relative concentration of pyridinic N in N 1s for AA-Fe₂N@NC sample reaches up to 37.8%, around 2.2 times big as that of Fe₂N@NC sample. Consequently, AA-Fe₂N@NC sample shows much superior catalytic performances than Fe₂N@NC, with more positive onset potential (72 mV positive shift) and half-wave potential (45 mV positive shift), as well as a smaller Tafel slope (59 mV dec⁻¹), consistent with the corresponding TOF values. It surprisingly affords a high power density of 168.15 mW cm⁻², a relatively small voltage gap of 0.577 V and a high onset round-trip efficiency of 68.1% when used as air cathode for liquid Zn-air battery. Combined with SCN⁻ inhibition experiment result, it is proposed and highlighted that, for this Fe-N-C system, carbon defects and C-N structures (pyridinic N) rather than Fe₂N compounds and Fe-N_x groups, acting as dominated active sites, contribute to high-efficiency ORR activities in alkaline media. Hence, we emphasize that iron nitride compounds play minor role in catalyzing for ORR, but could give rise to a satisfactory ORR property as well if one develops an effective surface

modification strategy to release more non-metal active sites.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interests to declare.

Acknowledgement

We greatly acknowledge the financial support of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 11674398).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.05.037>.

References

- [1] M. Zhou, H.L. Wang, S. Guo, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 45 (2016) 1273–1307.
- [2] J. Masa, W. Xia, M. Muhler, W. Schuhmann, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 54 (2015) 10102–10120.
- [3] M. Shen, C. Wei, K. Ai, L. Lu, *Nano Res.* 10 (2017) 1449–1470.
- [4] G. Wu, A. Santandreu, W. Kellogg, S. Gupta, O. Ogoke, H. Zhang, H.-L. Wang, L. Dai, *Nano Energy* 29 (2016) 83–110.
- [5] T. Varga, L. Vászrhelyi, G. Ballai, H. Haspel, A. Oszkó, Á. Kukovecz, Z. Kónya, *ACS Omega* 4 (2019) 130–139.
- [6] T. Asefa, *Acc. Chem. Res.* 49 (2016) 1873–1883.
- [7] X. Wang, B. Wang, J. Zhong, F. Zhao, N. Han, W. Huang, M. Zeng, J. Fan, Y. Li, *Nano Res.* 9 (2016) 1497–1506.
- [8] A.A. Gewirth, J.A. Varnell, A.M. DiAscro, *Chem. Rev.* 118 (2018) 2313–2339.
- [9] W.J. Jiang, L. Gu, L. Li, Y. Zhang, X. Zhang, L.J. Zhang, J.Q. Wang, J.S. Hu, Z. Wei, L.J. Wan, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 138 (2016) 3570–3578.
- [10] C.V. Rao, C.R. Cabrera, Y. Ishikawa, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* 1 (2010) 2622–2627.
- [11] J. Zhang, Y. Sun, J. Zhu, Z. Kou, P. Hu, L. Liu, S. Li, S. Mu, Y. Huang, *Nano Energy* 52 (2018) 307–314.
- [12] A. Zhu, L. Qiao, P. Tan, W. Zeng, Y. Ma, R. Dong, J. Pan, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* 541 (2019) 133–142.
- [13] L. Qiao, A. Zhu, H. Yang, W. Zeng, R. Dong, P. Tan, D. Zhong, Q. Ma, J. Pan, *Inorg. Chem. Front.* 5 (2018) 2276–2283.
- [14] M. Wu, K. Wang, M. Yi, Y. Tong, Y. Wang, S. Song, *ACS Catal.* 7 (2017) 6082–6088.
- [15] A. Zitolo, V. Goellner, V. Armel, M.T. Sougrati, T. Mineva, L. Stievano, E. Fonda, F. Jaouen, *Nat. Mater.* 14 (2015) 937–942.
- [16] W. Niu, L. Li, X. Liu, N. Wang, J. Liu, W. Zhou, Z. Tang, S. Chen, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 137 (2015) 5555–5562.
- [17] C. Zhu, H. Li, S. Fu, D. Du, Y. Lin, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 45 (2016) 517–531.
- [18] T. Sun, B. Tian, J. Lu, C. Su, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 5 (2017) 18933–18950.
- [19] K. Strickland, E. Miner, Q. Jia, U. Tylus, N. Ramaswamy, W. Liang, M.T. Sougrati, F. Jaouen, S. Mukerjee, *Nat. Commun.* 6 (2015) 7343.
- [20] M. Wang, Y. Yang, X. Liu, Z. Pu, Z. Kou, P. Zhu, S. Mu, *Nanoscale* 9 (2017) 7641–7649.
- [21] J. Wang, H. Wu, D. Gao, S. Miao, G. Wang, X. Bao, *Nano Energy* 13 (2015) 387–396.
- [22] Y. Deng, Y. Dong, G. Wang, K. Sun, X. Shi, L. Zheng, X. Li, S. Liao, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 9 (2017) 9699–9709.
- [23] A. Zhu, P. Tan, L. Qiao, Y. Liu, Y. Ma, X. Xiong, J. Pan, *Inorg. Chem. Front.* 4 (2017) 1748–1756.
- [24] L.T. Song, Z.Y. Wu, F. Zhou, H.W. Liang, Z.Y. Yu, S.H. Yu, *Small* 12 (2016) 6398–6406.
- [25] Q. Wang, Z.Y. Zhou, Y.J. Lai, Y. You, J.G. Liu, X.L. Wu, E. Terefe, C. Chen, L. Song, M. Rauf, N. Tian, S.G. Sun, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 136 (2014) 10882–10885.
- [26] J. Liu, X. Sun, P. Song, Y. Zhang, W. Xing, W. Xu, *Adv. Mater.* 25 (2013) 6879–6883.
- [27] W. Wan, X. Liu, H. Li, X. Peng, D. Xi, J. Luo, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 240 (2019) 193–200.
- [28] H. Yu, L. Shang, T. Bian, R. Shi, G.I. Waterhouse, Y. Zhao, C. Zhou, L.Z. Wu, C.H. Tung, T. Zhang, *Adv. Mater.* 28 (2016) 5080–5086.
- [29] A. Zhu, L. Qiao, Z. Jia, P. Tan, Y. Liu, Y. Ma, J. Pan, *Dalton Trans.* 46 (2017) 17032–17040.
- [30] Y. Li, W. Zhou, H. Wang, L. Xie, Y. Liang, F. Wei, J.C. Idrobo, S.J. Pennycook, H. Dai, *Nat. Nanotechnol.* 7 (2012) 394–400.
- [31] J. Zhang, Y. Song, M. Kopeck, J. Lee, Z. Wang, S. Liu, J. Yan, R. Yuan, T. Kowalewski, M.R. Bockstaller, K. Matyjaszewski, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 139 (2017) 12931–12934.
- [32] M.-Q. Wang, C. Ye, M. Wang, T.-H. Li, Y.-N. Yu, S.-J. Bao, *Energy Storage Mater.* 11 (2018) 112–117.
- [33] V.A. Setyowati, H.-C. Huang, C.-C. Liu, C.-H. Wang, *Electrochim. Acta* 211 (2016) 933–940.
- [34] X. Huang, Z. Yang, B. Dong, Y. Wang, T. Tang, Y. Hou, *Nanoscale* 9 (2017) 8102–8106.
- [35] M.-S. Balogun, M. Yu, Y. Huang, C. Li, P. Fang, Y. Liu, X. Lu, Y. Tong, *Nano Energy* 11 (2015) 348–355.
- [36] J. Xiao, Y. Xu, Y. Xia, J. Xi, S. Wang, *Nano Energy* 24 (2016) 121–129.
- [37] H.-F. Wang, C. Tang, B. Wang, B.-Q. Li, X. Cui, Q. Zhang, *Energy Storage Mater.* 15 (2018) 124–130.
- [38] K. Mamtani, D. Jain, D. Dogu, V. Gustin, S. Gunduz, A.C. Co, U.S. Ozkan, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 220 (2018) 88–97.
- [39] Y. Wang, L. Tao, Z. Xiao, R. Chen, Z. Jiang, S. Wang, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* (2018) 1705356.
- [40] L. Tao, Q. Wang, S. Dou, Z. Ma, J. Huo, S. Wang, L. Dai, *Chem. Commun.* 52 (2016) 2764–2767.
- [41] L. Wang, J. Yin, L. Zhao, C. Tian, P. Yu, J. Wang, H. Fu, *Chem. Commun.* 49 (2013) 3022–3024.
- [42] K. Wan, G.-F. Long, M.-Y. Liu, L. Du, Z.-X. Liang, P. Tsiakaras, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 165 (2015) 566–571.
- [43] Z. Liu, Z. Zhao, Y. Wang, S. Dou, D. Yan, D. Liu, Z. Xia, S. Wang, *Adv. Mater.* 29 (2017) 1606207.
- [44] Y. Wang, H. Liu, K. Wang, S. Song, P. Tsiakaras, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 210 (2017) 57–66.
- [45] X. Cui, S. Yang, X. Yan, J. Leng, S. Shuang, P.M. Ajayan, Z. Zhang, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 26 (2016) 5708–5717.
- [46] Y. Li, J. Xu, T. Feng, Q. Yao, J. Xie, H. Xia, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 27 (2017) 1606728.
- [47] U.I. Kramm, M. Lefevre, N. Larouche, D. Schmeisser, J.P. Dodelet, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 136 (2014) 978–985.
- [48] J.A. Varnell, J.S. Sotiropoulos, T.M. Brown, K. Subedi, R.T. Haasch, C.E. Schulz, A.A. Gewirth, *ACS Energy Lett.* 3 (2018) 823–828.
- [49] Z. Yang, S. Guo, X. Pan, J. Wang, X. Bao, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 4 (2011) 4500–4503.
- [50] N.R. Sahraie, U.I. Kramm, J. Steinberg, Y. Zhang, A. Thomas, T. Reier, J.P. Paraknowitsch, P. Strasser, *Nat. Commun.* 6 (2015) 8618.
- [51] J. Li, S. Ghoshal, W. Liang, M.-T. Sougrati, F. Jaouen, B. Halevi, S. McKinney, G. McCool, C. Ma, X. Yuan, Z.-F. Ma, S. Mukerjee, Q. Jia, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 9 (2016) 2418–2432.
- [52] Y.J. Sa, D.J. Seo, J. Woo, J.T. Lim, J.Y. Cheon, S.Y. Yang, J.M. Lee, D. Kang, T.J. Shin, H.S. Shin, H.Y. Jeong, C.S. Kim, M.G. Kim, T.Y. Kim, S.H. Joo, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 138 (2016) 15046–15056.
- [53] Z. Pei, H. Li, Y. Huang, Q. Xue, Y. Huang, M. Zhu, Z. Wang, C. Zhi, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 10 (2017) 742–749.
- [54] I.-A. Choi, D.-H. Kwak, S.-B. Han, J.-Y. Park, H.-S. Park, K.-B. Ma, D.-H. Kim, J.-E. Won, K.-W. Park, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 211 (2017) 235–244.
- [55] T. Zhou, Y. Du, S. Yin, X. Tian, H. Yang, X. Wang, B. Liu, H. Zheng, S. Qiao, R. Xu, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 9 (2016) 2563–2570.
- [56] C. Li, H. Liu, Z. Yu, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 241 (2019) 95–103.
- [57] C. Li, M. Wu, R. Liu, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 244 (2019) 150–158.
- [58] H. Jiang, Y. Liu, W. Li, J. Li, *Small* 14 (2018) 1703739.